
Style guide: The basis to compile dictionaries

Tsegay Woldemariam

Abstract

In spite of the many dictionary compilation works done in our country, the quality of their makeup and content is under question. Though perfection is rare for any work, producing good quality output should always be the ultimate goal. Dictionary compilation needs careful planning. The planning phase includes knowing who the users of the dictionary are, what its type is, what its size should be and what and what not to include in the dictionary. So anyone interested in preparing a dictionary should clearly put his plans in black and white, before rushing into the next phase. In such a planning the lexicographer needs to prepare a style guide. A style guide offers us a chance to compile dictionaries in a consistent manner. A style guide is a reference point that sets standards for preparing dictionaries where multiple authors use one tone.

1. Introduction

Different types of dictionaries that serve different purposes have been prepared at different times. Work on many dictionary projects are in progress by different people and agencies. Despite this, a large amount of work still remains to be done in the field. We do not have dictionaries that meet different requirements. The existing dictionaries do not reflect the modern developments in the field of linguistics and lexicography.

With the growing use of Ethiopian mother-tongue languages in the field of education, administration and mass communication, the need of dictionaries assumes vital importance. It becomes even more necessary considering the large number of languages spoken in the country.

2. What dictionaries are

The making of dictionaries generally touches the fields of linguistics such as *phonology* – the study of sound systems of languages, *morphology* – the study of word structure, *semantics* – the study of the meaning of words and *lexicography* – the science and art of writing, studying, analyzing and compiling a dictionary. Lexicography is the study of words, and the principles and procedures for describing them in a dictionary. A dictionary is the storehouse of words and their corresponding definitions. Words are arranged in a dictionary in order. The word ‘word’ is the most fundamental unit of linguistic structure (Akmajian, *et al.*, 2001:11).

3. What words are

According to Todd (1987:25-26) the most frequently implied meanings of ‘word’ are the following four. (1) An ***Orthographic word*** is one which has a space on either side of it. This applies only to the written text. (2) A ***Morphological word*** is a unique form which considers form only not meaning. For example in English the words ‘bank’ and ‘banks’ are two different morphological words, as they are not identical in form. (3) A ***Lexical word*** is a word having various forms which are closely related to meanings, not by form e.g., ‘bank’, ‘banking’, and ‘banks’ are three morphological words, but one lexical word. (4) A ***Semantic word*** distinguishes words which may be morphologically identical but differ in meaning e.g., the polysemous word ‘bank’ is one lexical word, but are two words which are not closely related in meaning, one referring to the edge of a river and the second a financial institution.

4. Types of dictionaries

To determine the types of dictionaries, the criteria vary from the nature of the lexical entry to the prospective user. According to Atkins and Runddell (2008), one can at least consider the following criteria to classify dictionaries.

a) *Scope of coverage* – according to the words covered in a dictionary, one can classify them as *general* dictionaries or *special* dictionaries. The general ones may cover words which are useful for the general user. The special ones can be classified on the basis of the nature of their word lists covering special fields such as geographical regions, cultural aspects, social dialects or special spheres of human activity, or the formal aspects of the lexical units, covering pronouncing dictionaries, word formation dictionaries, reverse dictionaries, etc.

b) *The number of languages involved* – according to the number of languages involved, dictionaries can be classified as *monolingual* – involving one language only, *bilingual* – involving two languages or *multilingual* – involving more than two languages.

c) *The dictionary size* – according to their size, dictionaries can be classified as *standard edition* – widely used and generally considered as authoritative, *concise* – short and compressed, *pocket dictionaries* – designed to the size of a pocket so that it can be portable. Even one can have a *table dictionary* – put only on a table for reference because of its size.

d) *The prospective user* – considering the user as a criterion for classification one can produce a dictionary for a *general reader* to find general linguistic information or for *special user* in some special fields.

e) *The nature of entries* – taking into account the type of entries to be dealt with, they can also be classified as *lexical* – registering the words of a language for general or special use with their pronunciation, definition, grammatical category, etc., *encyclopaedic* – dealing with names of persons, places, etc., covering all branches of knowledge by expressing extensive treatment of facts.

One can have much more classifications according to many more criteria, but for purpose these ones are enough¹.

5. The dictionary structure

The dictionary by itself is divided into two, the macrostructure and microstructure. The *macrostructure* is the overall arrangement of word list or lexical objects. It is the peripheral or outside matter of a dictionary. It includes the *front matter* – title page, contents, preface, acknowledgements, contributors, user guide, etc.; the *middle matter* – the lexical entry, meaning the A to Z part of the dictionary; and *back matter* – names, verb tables, weights and measures, symbols, conventions, quotations, maps, and other materials focused to the needs of the target user. And at last it has the back cover (Atkins and Runddell 2008:176; Jackson 2002:25).

The *microstructure* is the internal design of a reference unit, the arrangement of the information within the entries, and having detailed information about the headword. It contains the types of lexical information – headword, structure of individual lexicon entries (data categories – orthography (spelling), pronunciation, POS (parts of speech/ grammar) definition, example, etc (Atkins and Runddell 2008:177-178; Jackson 2002:26).

6. How dictionaries are made

Compiling dictionaries involves different phases. Generally, there are six main stages of dictionary making; vis. *Planning* – how the overall process should be done, *data collection* – collecting words from older and modern dictionaries, from books and other written materials, by deriving the words and by going to the place where the language is spoken, *sorting* – putting in alphabetical order the main entries and sub entries, *defining/ translating* – giving definition and sense/ senses for monolingual dictionaries and glosses of equivalent translations for multilingual dictionaries, *editing* – check whether the sorting, the definition or translation and punctuation are correct,

¹For more detailed information see (Atkins *et al.*... 2008:24-27).

and publishing – the overall typesetting and layout of the dictionary. For instance, data collection has different stages according to the type of the dictionary and the language enrolled. First, what types of words are to be collected? From what source does the lexicographer collect the data? Is it from people, books, or other sources? After these are decided, the lexicographer should consider how the data is to be put in order. Is it to be put in exercise book or card or digitized form? Then, what comes next? How are new words entertained after the collection, or while in the process of compilation?

In order to compile a very well organized dictionary, a lexicographer needs to prepare a *style guide/ style manual* for the work. Otherwise it will be a spontaneous work without a consistent structure.

7. Style guide - why we need it

Handling recurrent elements found in a dictionary in a consistent way is a basic principle of information management. This leads us to consolidate the dictionary's working style rules to be applied for individual dictionary entries in a style guide (Atkins and Runddell 2008:131). The style guide one prepares shows how many components each entry should have. Atkins and Runddell (2008:390) elaborate this idea as follows:

For each entry component, therefore, the editorial team needs a set of guidelines. These guidelines show how the dictionary's style policies should be applied in individual dictionary entries. And the Style Guide – essentially a book of instructions for lexicographers – is the document in which all these guidelines are assembled.

The Style Guide is a set of instructions which provides detailed guidelines for handling every aspect of the microstructure. These guidelines reflect general policy decisions made at the outset of the project – and those decisions, in turn, reflect our understanding of the needs and capabilities of the intended user. The Style Guide affects both content and presentation.

Some of the actions involved in compiling a dictionary are recurrent. For instance, you need to indicate the grammatical category of each word. In a large dictionary there are thousands of nouns and verbs. So one need to decide which words are nouns and which ones are verbs. But once we have decided, we have to type "noun" (n) or "verb" (v) and we have to do this a thousand times. The consistency of the dictionary is to be kept by a well designed style guide. Atkins and Runddell (2008:118) states: “A dictionary which labelled ‘informal’ items sometimes as informal, sometimes as infml, inf., or colloq. would confuse a regular user and would not inspire much confidence”. Sometimes one may be forced to add a single punctuation mark at a stage where the compilation is almost done. This can affect the size and the printing cost of the dictionary. Therefore it is obligatory to prepare a style guide before starting the making of a dictionary.

It is also good to see how other good dictionaries are made, before starting to compile a dictionary. This helps us to structure our work as much as we follow the structure of the dictionary we are interested in. But this does not give us any guarantee of consistency in our work. Because, we may register an infinitive for one headword and we may omit it under another. Though it is good to follow the works of others, following our style guide has no substitutes. Therefore it would be best to just note any additions and change that apply to our compilation.

The Style Guide is a very important resource in any dictionary project and to everyone who uses the dictionary.

A Clear, well-structured Style Guide resolves uncertainty in cases where straightforward rulings can be given, and provides advice in situations where lexicographers have to use their own judgment. All of this enhances editors’ confidence and improves the efficiency of the compilation process. This in turn brings benefits to the dictionary user. Users gradually get to know how their dictionary works, and if it is well organized and internally consistent, they should find that unsatisfactory look-ups – which undermine confidence in the

dictionary – are relatively rare (Atkins and Runddell 2008:122).

The lexicographer should have a very good knowledge of the prepared style guide. This helps to judge or decide what goes where. The style guide should always be put in a portable way so that the lexicographer can refer to it now and then.

8. The content of dictionary style guide

The style guide is a set of instructions which offers detailed guidelines for handling every element of the microstructure. The style guide we prepare may cover such components (areas) as the following. The author has followed mostly the way Atkins and Runddell (2008:118-119) put it.

a) Words:

How do we select a word as a headword, in what criteria? Do we put derived words as headwords? To what extent do we insert derived words of an entry? How do we treat offensive terms, figures of speech?

For instance in Amharic and Tigrinya, the headword (main entry) for verb is, 3rd person, masculine, and singular, in the simple past tense. The intention here is to put the simplest meaningful word (the simplest building block) first as a headword from which the other derivations and inflections come out.

	Amharic	Tigrinya	Gloss	
e.g.	ሰበረ	[səb:əɾə/	səbərə]	‘he broke’,
	መለጠ	[mə:ət'ə/	mələt'ə]	‘he scraped’,
	በረረ	[bər:əɾə/	bərəɾə]	‘he flew’

If we take phrasal verbs, the Amharic monolingual dictionary published by Ethiopian Languages Research Center put the first part of the phrasal verb as a headword, then puts the phrasal verb with its other entries (Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:xxii):

e.g. ግው² [gɨw:i]

ግው ኣለ [gɨw:i ʔalə] በሃይል ነደደ። እሳቱ ግው ብሎ ነደደ።

If we see the Amharic – English bilingual dictionary compiled by Thomas Leiper Kane, the above phrasal verb headword is not the simplest one, but the one which is more meaningful than the simpler one. In fact Kane gave a gloss for the simpler word ግው [gɨw:i] which is under the headword ግው ኣለ [gɨw:i ʔalə] (Kane 1990:2023):

e.g. ግው ኣለ [gɨw:i ʔalə] to crash, bang, boom, to make a loud sound

ግው [gɨw:i] boom!, bang!, crash!

b) Alphabetization:

Here we are dealing with how the entries are put in order. It is good to decide how the dictionary proper is to be put in order. The Amharic monolingual dictionary published by Ethiopian Languages Research Center uses the ሀ ለ መ 'hə lə mə' alphabet by reducing the redundant sounds. The editors of the dictionary states:

Though the alphabet in use is the above one, the alphabet this dictionary uses and applies is based on the alphabet shown below, which was decided by the former Academy of Ethiopian Languages Council (Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:xiii-xv).

The ዐዲስ፡ያማርኛ፡መዝገብ፡ቃላት 'The new Amharic Dictionary' by Desta Teklewold, ordered the entries in the Abugida (አበገደ) alphabetical order (Desta 1962:6).

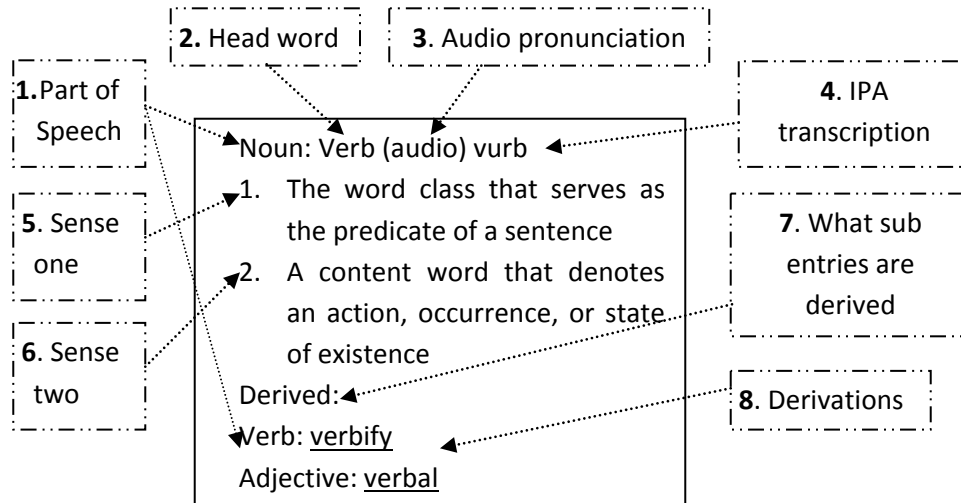
c) Entry structure:

It is very important to decide how every input in an entry should be incorporated. It starts from the headword and goes down to the last entry in

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the headword; it can be an illustration, example, sense, any derivation or reference, but it should be planned before hand.

e.g. The Wordweb e-dictionary put the entries for the word ‘verb’ as follows:



Entries for the word ‘verb’ in Wordweb

How much does the dictionary entertain derivatives? Will it consider inflections? If so when and how? All these can be entertained in a dictionary according to the type of the dictionary and the target user.

d) Variant forms:

In what circumstances can a one word form be shown as a variant under another headword? Should variant forms also have their own entries? In every language there are variant forms of words. The main issue here is how we treat these words.

e.g. (Kane 1990:1524) puts a word and shows its variant as a variant of that headword.

ወንቃፊሎ [wəŋk'afilo] var of ወንቃፍ [wəŋk'af] meaning ‘wooden hook used for pulling down dead branches from trees’.

e) *Homographs*

How are homographs² dealt with? As we have mentioned above the semantic word ‘bank’ is a homograph having two different meanings. Then how do we arrange them in the microstructure?

e.g. The Microsoft Encarta (2009) puts the homograph ‘bank’ as separate headwords consecutively.

bank¹ [bank]

noun (plural banks)

1. business offering financial services: a business that keeps money for individual people or companies, exchanges currencies, makes loans, and offers other financial services

bank² [bank]

noun (plural banks)

1. side of waterway: the steep side of a river, stream, lake, or canal

The Microsoft Encarta editors put the financial institution ‘bank’ (which is well known) first and the sloping land ‘bank’ second.

f) *Compounds:*

How do we treat compounds? And to what extent we have to treat them? Do we have to give them a headword status or put them under another headword?

e.g. (Kane 1990:1524) put the compound አንጅቱን በላው [ʔandzətun bel:aw] ‘to take pity on someone’ under አንጅት [ʔandzət] ‘intestine’ in its place.

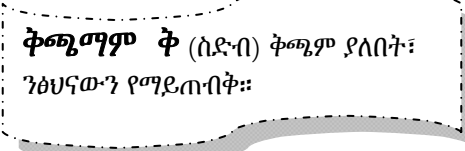
²A homograph is a word with identical spelling to another word, but having different meaning (Atkins *et al.*... 2008:192).

g) Word category:

Every word in a dictionary has a category. The word category label given to a word should be consistent. For example, if we give a label for verbs, it should not be ‘verb’ in one place, ‘v’ in another, and yet ‘vb’ somewhere else.

h) Labels:

What criteria determine whether a word is labeled in one way and how? The label should always be consistent enough in order that the user can differentiate simply wherever he/ she gets those words (Atkins and Runddell 2008:233). For instance, the Amharic monolingual dictionary (Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993) puts a label (ስድብ) [sɪdɪb] ‘insult’ for the word which is insult.

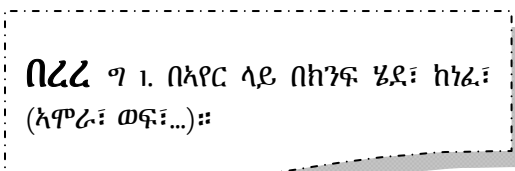
e.g. 

(Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:188)

i) Definition/ gloss:

What style of defining a word is taken into account? How are senses ordered (historical or frequency or semantic – core meaning first)? (Atkins and Runddell 2008:250-252).

The Amharic monolingual dictionary (Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.) put the definition of words as a core meaning for that headword. Let us take the word ቢረረ [bɛr:ɛrɛ] ‘flew’ as it is put in the dictionary.

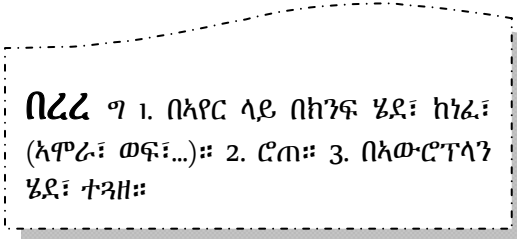
e.g. 

(Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:219)

j) Senses:

Once a main meaning is given for a word, it is also necessary to see if the word has other senses. But the main thing here is how the senses are put one after the other. Is it by a historical order, or frequency order, or semantic order? The style guide should put this issue clearly. How to handle the granularity of the senses is also very important (Atkins *et al.*, 2008:388).

In the above example of the Amharic monolingual dictionary (Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.) the senses of words are put in their semantic order. Let us take the word በረረ [bər:ərə] ‘flew’ as it is put in the dictionary.

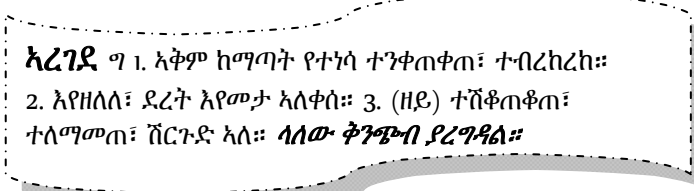
e.g. The image shows a dashed-line box containing Amharic text. The text is: በረረ ግ 1. በአየር ላይ በከንፍ ሄደ፣ ከነፈ፣ (አሞራ፣ ወፍ፣...)። 2. ሮጠ። 3. በአውሮፕላን ሄደ፣ ተጓዘ።

(Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:219)

k) Examples:

When do we need to include an example? How? Most of the times examples are given when the definition or gloss does not seem to explain the word well. This is the judgment of the lexicographer. It is put at the end of the definition or gloss in a different way, which makes it more vivid than the definition or gloss.

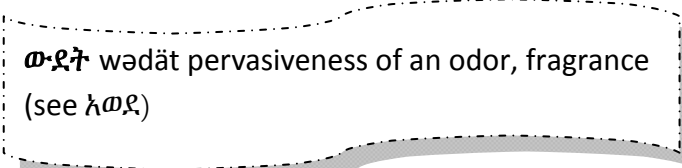
In the Amharic monolingual dictionary (Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.) the examples given for senses of words are put at the end of the definition; and yet they are clearly distinguished from the other definition by putting them in *italics*. Let us take the word አረገደ [ʔarəg:ədə] ‘fumed’.

e.g. 
አረገደ ግ 1. አቅም ከማጣት የተነሳ ተንቀጠቀጠ፣ ተብረከረከ።
2. እየዘለለ፣ ደረት እየመታ አለቀሰ። 3. (ዘይ) ተሸቆጠቆጠ፣
ተለማመጠ፣ ሸርጉድ አለ። **ላለው ቅንጭብ ያረግዳል።**

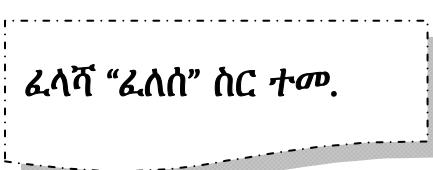
(Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:568)

l) Cross-reference:

What type of cross-reference is used when one word is referred to another? When are they shown? A cross-reference is used when a word needs more explanation or when it is the variant of that word. And in other times some derived words are referred to their place where they are put as a headword or the reverse can be true as necessary.

e.g. 1 
ውደት wädät pervasiveness of an odor, fragrance
(see አወደ)

(Kane 1990:1568)

e.g. 2 
ፈላሻ “ፈለሰ” ስር ተመ.

(Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:568)

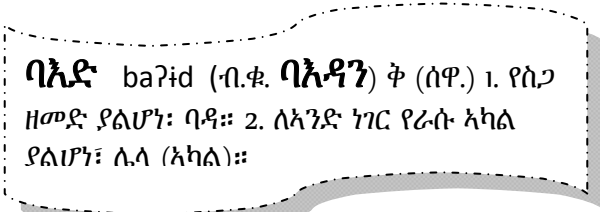
m) Abbreviations:

When do we use abbreviations, and how? How is abbreviated word forms usually put? It is necessary to show in the front matter what abbreviations are used for what words used in the dictionary proper.

n) Punctuation:

Punctuation should be well addressed in the style guide. What type of punctuation is used for what purpose should be clearly put, otherwise it will make inconvenience and reduce the confidence of the user of the dictionary. For instance in the Amharic monolingual dictionary ‘.’ is used for abbreviations and numbers which indicate senses.

e.g.



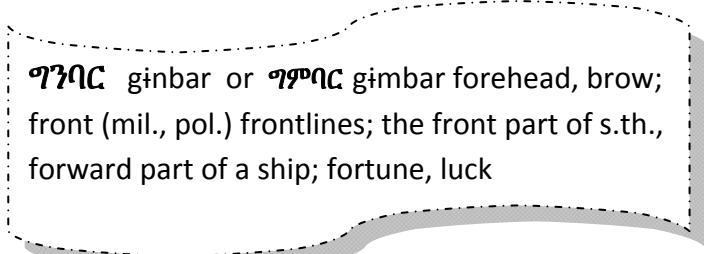
ባእድ baʔid (ብ.ቁ. **ባእዳን**) ቅ (ሰዋ.) 1. የሰጋ
ዘመድ ያልሆነ፡ ባዳ። 2. ለአንድ ነገር የራሱ አካል
ያልሆነ፡ ሌላ (አካል)።

(Haregeweyn *et al.* 1993 E.C.:240)

o) Spelling differences:

How do we treat words which differ only in spelling, as headwords or variant forms? Kane (1990:1568) puts words which only differ in spelling side by side and give them their definition.

e.g.



ግንባር g̃inbar or **ግምባር** g̃imbar forehead, brow;
front (mil., pol.) frontlines; the front part of s.th.,
forward part of a ship; fortune, luck

p) Translations:

When we are dealing with compiling a bilingual or multilingual dictionary, we have to consider that these languages vary from one another both linguistically and culturally. How are translations to be treated then? Are headwords and meanings that are to be translated or other components of an entry are also to be translated? How do we treat items which do not have equivalent in the target language (TL)? Kane translates some Amharic

words in phrases or sentences, because there are no equivalent words in the target language (English).

e.g.

ግንቢሉት gənbilut a quick ripening, short stalked variety of sorghum, the kernels of which are not very white

(Kane 1990:2003)

q) Order of entries:

How do we order our entries, and the parts in the entries? There are different ways of sorting the dictionary proper. In most bilingual and multilingual dictionaries, the entries are ordered in their alphabetical order. Sometimes, the headwords are sorted alphabetically, and the other sub entries are ordered under the headword. The later way of sorting mostly applies to monolingual dictionaries. Desta ordered the headword in the Abugida way of sorting and put all the other sub entries under the headword (Desta 1962 E.C.).

r) Fonts and typefaces:

For what purposes do we use fonts or typefaces? And how are emphasizing and highlighting expressed? How do we use different fonts for our entries for different purposes? To make an emphasis, dictionaries do highlight words or other entries under a headword. This highlighting is making the entry bolder than others to show the entries clearly for an easy access. This makes the dictionary simpler and attractive to be used by many more users. Sometimes, examples are put in *italics* to make them easily identified. Different compilers use different typefaces and font types which they seem easier for the user.

s) *Gender:*

How do we handle gender related words? Dictionaries treat gender associated words as they are only given to the gender. For instance if a word is used in the feminine only put near to it (feminine) to indicate that the word is said only in a feminine gender only.

e.g.

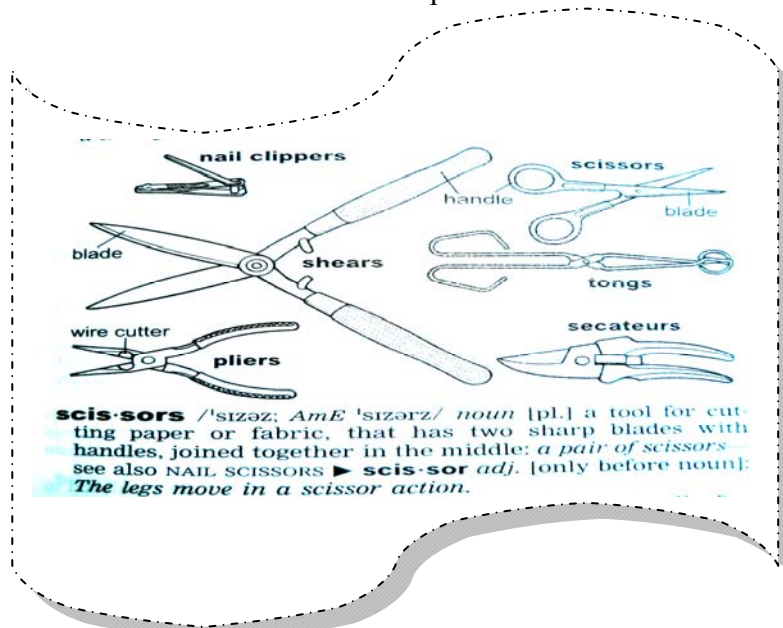
ወልዴ **wälde** masc. pers. n., ወልዱ **wäldu**
masc. pers. n.

(Kane 1990:1490)

b) *Tables, Figures, Pictures and Appendices:*

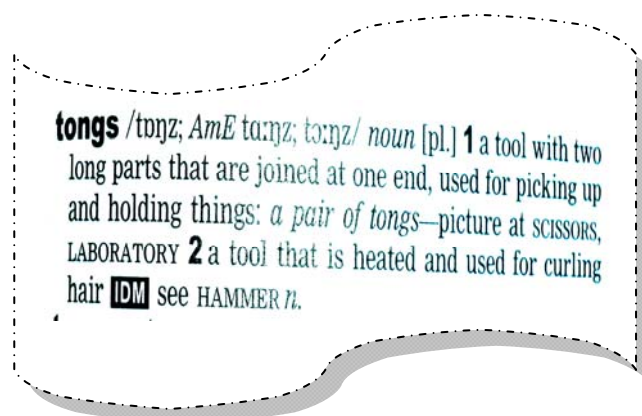
The way tables, figures, pictures and appendices are put should be clearly stated in the style guide. For instance some dictionaries put pictures in the place where the headword is, and yet others put alike pictures in one place and refer them whenever the word comes in its place.

e.g. 1



(Hornby 2001:1143) (1369)

e.g. 2



(Hornby 2001:1369)

9. The need for template in a style guide

Those items which are recurrent in the dictionary need some type of template so that we may be consistent in our writing. These templates may differ according to the dictionary type. Templates help us not to omit relevant information randomly.

A template entry is a framework designed to facilitate writing entries for words that belong to lexical sets. A 'lexical set' is any group of words that share a common element of meaning, such as the days of the month or months of the year, or birds, trees, flowers, and metals (Atkins and Runddell 2008:123).

For instance, we can take the definition for 'horse' and 'tiger'. We can have a template of their size, family, diet, number of legs, fur, physique, habitat, their usage and the like. This template should be included for the template for animals: wild animals, domestic animals, birds, reptiles, fish, invertebrates, etc. Such a template makes the information (the structure and content of the entry and the structure and content of the definition) given in a dictionary consistent (Atkins and Runddell 2008:124). A member of a lexical set can also have its own lexical set. For example: the human body can be a lexical set of head, hand, body, leg etc. Head can have a lexical set of hair, forehead, ears, eye, nose, mouth, face etc. Even we can have a

lexical set for an eye, having a set of pupil, eye brow, eye lash, eye ball, eye lid, cornea, iris, lens, etc.

It is always better to create a template category before we make a lexical set category. They can be hierarchical according to their semantic domain. We can go from the general to the simplest lexical unit. For instance we can start from the living things, animal/ plants, wild/ domestic, carnivorous/ herbivorous, flying/ four legged, and go on to the minimal lexical set and its units.

A word can have more than one template. The word ‘pound’ should be seen in both templates for weight and currency. A template for a word can vary according to the dictionary type. The information included in the template increase or decrease accordingly. We can have more information in a monolingual dictionary than in a bilingual or multilingual dictionary.

A produced template is useful to:

- ❖ use as a checklist entry for any word in a lexical set
- ❖ simplify the editorial process, by enabling us to extract and assemble relevant information much more quickly than we could otherwise
- ❖ ensure systematic and comprehensive coverage of the lexical units involved
- ❖ less likely miss important facts, and when all the members of a team have access to them, the risk of producing widely differing entries for similar objects or entities is greatly reduced (Atkins and Runddell 2008:127).

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e.g. a simple comparative template for the words ‘tiger’ and ‘sheep’

Lexical set (wild animal)	feature	Has/ is (+)	Does not have/ is not (-)	Lexical set (domestic animal)	Has/ is (+)	Does not have/ is not (-)
tiger <i>noun</i>	large	+		sheep <i>noun</i>		-
	small		-			-
	medium		-		+	
	four legged	+			+	
	claws	+				-
	hoof		-		+	
	horn		-		+	
	fur		-		+	
	carnivorous	+				-
	herbivorous		-		+	
	wild	+				-
	domestic		-		+	
	terrifying	+				-
flesh can be eaten		-	+			

The order of the template can be arranged the way it fits better. The judgment can be made by the dictionary compiler. Here we take the shared features of the lexical set. Sometimes we may use the negative (-) features as input to compile the definition. From the above template we can make our definition/ gloss in the following way.

tiger *noun* a four legged, big, carnivorous, terrifying, wild animal having big claws and stripped color.

In a bilingual dictionary, this definition can be reduced to its simple equivalent. But where there is no equivalent for the word, it can be explained in the above paraphrased way. The above definition can apply for

many of the cat family lexical set. The difference between each lexical item is their uniqueness. It can be their color, where they live or another feature.

10. Conclusion and Recommendations

As it is said above a style guide is a decisive material which should be prepared in the planning stage when thinking to compile a dictionary. Some of the actions involved in compiling dictionaries are recurrent, thus, the consistency of the overall work is guided well by a style guide. The needs and competencies of the intended user help the lexicographers to frame a style guide. Hence, the style guide affects both the content and presentation of the dictionary.

To make the dictionary entries and their definitions consistent, it is mandatory to use a style guide now and then. It is the lexicographer who decides what to include in it according to the type and size of the dictionary. The contents of the style guide can be more in detail than these issues. Without a style guide, the quality of the dictionary and the confidence of the users may decrease and vice versa.

Preparing a style guide beforehand saves time, energy and money. It may take some time, and it may be tiresome to prepare it, but, once it is well prepared, and followed carefully, the whole work of compiling the dictionary is also well organized and rewarding eventually. But, being hasty to do the work without preparing a style guide, finally it will have its own negative consequences.

It is good to produce a user guide to accompany the style manual and place it in the front matter. It is also necessary to produce a manual on how to prepare a user guide. Finally, I conclude by quoting what Atkins and Rundell say: “Give careful thought to your template entries: days spent on creating a comprehensive set can save literally months of editing time in the long run” (Atkins *et al.* 2008:490).

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ደስታ፡ተክለ፡ወልድ (1962 E.C.) *ወዲስ፡ምርምር፡መዝገበ፡ቃላት*፡ አዲስ አበባ፣ አርቲስቲክ ማተሚያ ቤት።

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³ All the years of publishing stated are in G.C. (Gregorian Calendar), except those years which have E.C. (Ethiopian Calendar).

